DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 269 877 EA 018 479

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TITLE Local Models of the Curriculum Planning Process for Secondary English: A Descriptive Study.
PUB DATE Apr 86
NOTE 38p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (70th, San Francisco, CA, April 16-20, 1986).
PUB TYPE Speeches/Conference Papers (150) -- Reports - Descriptive (141)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Administrator Role; Core Curriculum; Curriculum Design; *Curriculum Development; *Educational Planning; *English Curriculum; Models; *Participative Decision Making; School Organization; School Supervision; Secondary Education; Teacher Administrator Relationship; Teacher Influence; Teacher Participation

ABSTRACT

This study examined curriculum procedures and the roles, decision-making processes, and perceptions of central administrators, building administrators, and teachers in five school districts. Qualitative data collection included taped interviews using a focused indepth interview schedule, field notes, observation, and document collection. The study of the curriculum processes in each district resulted in the development of a five-step curriculum model: preplanning, planning, writing, implementation, and revision. Naturalistic models developed in each district as the curriculum was affected by various influences. The findings suggest that a school district's environment has definite effects on the curriculum process and that an influential person is needed to monitor all stages of the procedure. The findings also indicate that, despite a strong move toward centralization of the curriculum as a result of state mandates, teachers will derive a sense of satisfaction and "ownership" of curriculum documents only to the extent that they participate in curriculum planning and writing. A bibliography that includes books, articles, reports, and conference papers is appended. (Author/TE)

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LOCAL MODELS OF THE CURRICULUM PLANNING PROCESS FOR SECONDARY ENGLISH: A DESCRIPTIVE STUDY

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Presented at
AERA
San Francisco, California
April 1986

EA 018 479

Weaver, Patricia A., & Ponder, Gerald Local Models for the Curriculum Planning Process for Secondary English: A Descriptive Study.

This study examined the curriculum procedures, roles of the participants, decision-making processes, and perceptions of the resulting documents in five school districts.

Qualitative data collection included taped interviews using a focused in-depth interview schedule, field notes, observation, and document collection. The study included central administrators, building administrators, and teachers.

The study of the curriculum processes in each district resulted in the development of a five-step curriculum model: preplanning, planning, writing, implementation, and revision. Naturalistic models developed in each district as the curriculum was impacted by various pressures and influences.

The findings suggest the effects of a school district's environment on the curricululm process and the importance of an influential person to monitor all stages of the procedure. The findings also indicate a strong move toward centralization of curriculum as a result of increasing state mandates and demonstrate that teachers derive a sense of satisfaction and "ownership" of curriculum documents as they take part in curriculum planning and writing.

Local Models of the Curriculum Planning Process for Secondary English: A Descriptive Study

Many elements of the curriculum development process have been the subjects of studies. One aspect often examined is the curriculum model used as a basis for the curriculum process. Several theorists have proposed "pure" models for curriculum planning and development (e.g., Tyler, 1949; Taba, 1962; Gagne, 1967). Researchers have noted many adaptations of these models in actual curriculum planning (Bulack, 1978; Eible & Zavarella, 1979; Ervay, 1981, Martin, 1981; Miller, 1981). Still others have sought to describe local curriculum models perceived to be successful and to provide strategies for developing curriculum that will be accepted and implemented (e.g., Bailey & Littrell, 1981; Jacko & Garman, 1979; Rhodes & Young, 1981; Short, 1982; Ponder, 1983). Some researchers have described their work in curriculum projects and have recorded the process used in that particular project (e.g., Purves, 1975).

Rarely have researchers examined all aspects of the actual curriculum development process from its inception at the district level to the finished curriculum product used in the classroom. Walker (1971) recognized the need for a more specific study of the curriculum process as he noted the history of "theoretical" models and the general descriptions of various curriculum methods. But he stated that there was no in depth examination of the actual curriculum process.

In his more detailed examination of the process through his study of various curriculum projects, he stated,

> For whatever reason, those who were in a position to observe and record projects' methods have rendered the portrait in such broad strokes as to make it virtually useless to students of curriculum making who need to know precisely how such matters as goal-setting and the selection and organization of learning activities were handled (p. 6).

In his case study he detailed the specifics involved in curriculum deliberations by participants in curriculum projects.

Since Walker's study, various case studies have been made in order to detail facets of the curriculum development process, especially teachers' participation in curriculum planning and writing (e.g., Shipman, 1974; Reid & Walker, 1975; Toomey, 1977; Young, 1979; Ben-Peretz, 1980; Sabar & Shafriri, 1980; Elbaz, 1981). In a recent case study in Israel, Ben-Peretz and Tamir (1984) examined various aspects of curriculum projects in a centralized educational system. The study involved projects developing curriculum in language arts, biology, and geography. Using analysis of documents, surveys, and personal interviews, they noted the time span of the projects, the type of evaluation, the bases for funding, and the modes of operation within the projects.

Such case studies of centralized curriculum projects add to the understanding of the complexities of the curriculum development process and its many forms, but the specifics of the process at the local level have not been fully described. The present study expanded the research to examine the local

curriculum development process in five school districts. Each of these districts had an ongoing curriculum process, and each was able to provide curriculum documents resulting from the process. Through interviews, observation, and document analysis, this multi-site study traced language arts curriculum planning and writing from the central office to the classroom, described participants' roles in the process, examined decisions made during planning and writing, and analyzed the finished curriculum product.

The subsequent data and interpretations provide information for a fuller understanding of curriculum development at the local level, the roles of those involved, the kinds of decisions that are made and influences affecting those decisions, and teachers' and administrators' perceptions of a successful curriculum project which results in a practical and usable curriculum document.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to describe local models for developing secondary English curriculum documents in selected school districts. The study examined the procedures used by the districts, the decision-making processes, the resulting products and the various participants and their roles. The study also examined teachers' perceptions of the appropriateness and usability of secondary English curriculum documents. Specifically, the study used five school districts as case study sites and examined their processes of developing English

curriculum documents. The study also included an examination of the resulting English curriculum documents from these districts.

This study was concerned with all aspects of the curriculum development process from inception to finished product. It examined both administrators' and teachers' roles in the process as well as the bases for curriculum decisions. The subjects of the study were five school districts in three western and southwestern states. These sites were selected on the basis of their commitment to curriculum development as evidenced by articles in such professional journals as Educational Leadership, the Phi Delta Kappan, and The Executive Educator, as well as through recognition in newspapers such as the New York Times and The Washington Post. This commitment was further evidenced by presentations by district personnel at various professional meetings such as state and national conferences of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, as well as by the quality of the curriculum documents emanating from the curriculum process.

Procedures

Even though the intent of the study was to increase understanding of curriculum development rather than to create generalizations, Wilson (1977) suggests, "If one wants ultimately to generalize research findings to schools, then the research is best conducted within school settings where all the forces are intact" (p.248). A case study approach (Wilson, 1977; Stake, 1978) using qualitative data collection and analysis procedures

was selected for this multi-site study of the process for developing secondary English curriculum in five school districts. Case studies can be a source of increased understanding and shared experiences as they lead to recognition of similarities of happenings, processes and perceptions. In such a study a full and thorough knowledge of the particular provides a natural basis for what Stake (1978) calls "naturalistic generalization."

A naturalistic approach was used because it provided detailed information on such factors as group interaction, decision-making roles of secondary curriculum participants and relationships between process and product. The information on these factors was collected through interviews, observations of curriculum meetings, collection of documents and field notes in order to triangulate the data (Denzin, 1978). Since data was collected and examined throughout the study in an on-going iterative process, following the "grounded theory" approach (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), a priori hypotheses to be tested were neither possible nor desirable. Rather the researcher chose "thick description" (Geertz, 1973), or a collection of rich primary data which include verbatim accounts of what people said as well as documents resulting from the process.

The open-ended, in-depth interview of key informants (Le Compte & Goetz, 1982a) was chosen as a major research tool because the researcher wished to gain access to feelings and understandings of the respondents (Oppenheimer, 1966; Brandt, 1972; Garfinkel, 1972; Wilson, 1977), and the information could

not be obtained through direct observation or use of a questionaire (Brandt, 1972). The use of such focused interviews in data collection has been mentioned in several studies designed to measure the acceptance and implementation of particular curriculum innovations (Charters & Pellegrin, 1973; Brown, et. al., 1976; Loucks & Pratt, 1979). Hord (1978) found through focused interviews that participants in such research did not feel influenced as respondents. These findings strengthened the use of focused interviews for subsequent research studies.

This study included four open-ended interview schedules with questions designed to obtain respondents' understandings and perceptions of the district secondary curriculum process and the resulting curriculum document. Three interview schedules were designed to ascertain the characteristics of the curriculum process and to examine the perceptions of those involved in the development of the curriculum documents. The fourth schedule was created to obtain the perceptions of teachers not directly involved in the curriculum development but directly involved in the use of the documents.

In the five school districts included in the study, the researcher visited twenty-three (23) schools and interviewed sixty-four (64) respondents, forty-nine (49) using a focused interview schedule, fifteen (15) using an informal interview technique. The researcher also observed curriculum writing sessions and examined typical curriculum documents resulting from the process.

During the research and transcriptions, the constant-comparative data analysis (Glaser & Straus,1967) was an iterative, on-going process. In each site and with each interview the researcher looked for emerging and repeating patterns in the responses to the focused in-depth interview questions. After the transcriptions were complete, these patterns became a part of the coding categories that were developed and used to analyze the data (Appendix A) contains a list of these categories and their descriptions). These categories were based on the five original research questions: process, participants, decisions, influences and perceptions. These were subdivided into more specific references and patterns that emerged as the transcripts were completed.

Throughout the analysis, the researcher focused on comparability and translatability of findings rather than on generalizability (Le Compte & Goetz, 1982b; Goetz & LeCompte, 1984). Comparability and translatability compare respectively to external validity and external reliability, or replicability in quantitative research. The thick description (Ryle, 1971: Geertz, 1973) and primary data in the form of quotations increase the internal reliability of the study since the researcher's inferences can be checked by readers (Le Compte & Goetz, 1982b; Goetz & LeCompte, 1984).

Findings

Curriculum Models

The common model. The study of the curriculum processes in

each of the five districts resulted in a descriptive five-part curriculum model: preplanning, planning, writing, implementation, and revision (See Appendix B). Within the five areas of each curriculum model, several patterns emerged. Each district had, in the preplanning stage, some impetus for a new curriculum direction. Such influences as test scores, state mandates, public concern, student skills, or student needs often led to some curriculum change. All districts reported some kind of data gathering, at times in the form of formal needs assessments, during the planning stage. This planning stage also included policy development and policy approval. Each district also mentioned selection of committees within the planning stage.

In the writing stage, intensive training of teachers was an integral part of the curriculum process. Describing this writing stage, curriculum writers spoke of developing goals and objectives, selecting strategies, and deciding upon content and document format. Most also mentioned a strong emphasis on negotiation throughout the writing process. The writers described these "negotiations" as they detailed their decisions in the selection and placement of content and skills to be taught.

Although implementation was not intended as a part of the original research and although the research questions were not designed in that direction, implementation surfaced as a major part of the curriculum planning process. The respondents from each district described curriculum implementation which included

staff development, document revision, pilots and field tests as an integral part of the curriculum planning process.

The revision process, the fifth stage of the common model, included formulation of review committees, updates of curriculum documents and modification of courses. At times the revision process was a formal part of the curriculum model. At other times the revisions were made informally without official documentation. Although the revision process was more articulated in some of the curriculum models, all districts had some kind of revison process for curriculum documents.

Naturalistic models. In each of the five districts, naturalistic variations on the common model characterized the curriculum models of the several districts as the curriculum was impacted by different pressures and influences. For example, one district had both formal and informal input into the curriculum which led to an obvious two-pronged formal/informal split at the planning stage in the five stage model. A second district emphasized projects at the writing stage. A third district had a continuous cycle model that included emphasis on writing, implementation, and revision based on a four year rotation. A fourth district, with more building autonomy in making curriculum decisions, implemented district-wide curriculum documents but allowed some variation in implementing curriculum in each building. Finally, the fifth district followed the common model very closely but depended on outside consultants for much of the curriculum planning and writing. (Note: Curriculum models were

developed from the data collected in each district. See Appendices C-G).

Participants. The curriculum models also indicated definite roles throughout the curriculum process. In each district model, during preplanning and planning stages, central office administrators formulated and approved policy. During the writing stage, teachers documented district policy and chose content and strategies to carry out these policies. In the implementation stage, building administrators monitored the implementation of district curriculum at the building level. The revision stage often was a mini version of the curriculum development process as the district worked its way back through the curriculum process.

Trends and Implications

Curriculum ecology. In a study of curriculum development in Israel, Ben-Peretz and Tamir (1984) found that the environment had a strong effect on the development of curriculum models. In their study, they found no one curriculum model; rather they found models developing according to the environment and the practical knowledge of the curriculum developers. They called these "naturalistic" curriculum models. This study found such naturalistic models to be characteristic of the five districts that took part in the research. Even though the local curriculum models had many similar elements, differences in the models arose from varying emphases among external and internal influences and particularistic pressures within the various districts.

The curriculum models include the basic steps of preplanning, planning, writing, implementation and revision. But within these steps, the various models and the documents resulting from the curriculum process reflect the characteristics of the district, the needs of teachers and students, and other areas of concern within each individual district. Thus, in a district where student achievement on college scores is a major concern, much of the formal and informal planning focuses on developing curriculum to meet this need. Since this district has a strong emphasis on "quality control" of the curriculum, a well-defined informal curriculum process has developed within the formal structure in order to assure constant update and refinement of curriculum goals.

In other districts a focus on basic skills has necessitated a curriculum model designed to produce specific objectives and methods to accomplish these objectives. In the largest district in the study, the size and diversity of the district has produced a curriculum model that emphasizes research in all facets of the curriculum process. This district also has a strong desire to maintain local control at the building level, and this desire is reflected in the curriculum model.

Prime Mover. Another major recurring trend in the curriculum process of the five districts in the study was a force for change that might be called the "prime mover." This force was the most influential person or group in initiating curriculum change in a district. Every district studied had such a force. In two

districts, the force was higher level central office administrators influenced by the community. In one of these districts the community's demand for quality education and student achievement was reflected in the curriculum designed by the assistant superintendent and his staff. In another district the community was highly represented in a school improvement council which served as a check point or quality control for district curriculum. This council became the prime mover in the district. Again, their demands were carried out by the superintendent and his higher level staff members.

In the other three districts, the major forces in curriculum decisions were individuals at various levels of authority. In one district the major force in curriculum change was an assistant superintendent of curriculum with complete authority from the superintendent to make whatever changes he felt necessary. In a second district the original force was a language arts consultant who had the complete support of the assistant superintendent of curriculum. In the third district the change agents were various subject area consultants.

Studies indicate that the smaller the school district the more likely the superintendent is to be involved in curriculum development (e. g., Feaster, 1984). Even though this study included some relatively small districts, the research found only one district out of the five in which the superintendent was mentioned as an active participant in the process. But in the districts where there was a higher level of authority as the

prime mover and where this major participant had extensive curriculum knowledge, the changes were more sweeping and more sequential. These curriculum changes were also perceived as a district commitment by more respondents in the study.

For example, in the district with only a subject area consultant to make curriculum changes, even though the curriculum was a K-12 scope and sequence, the changes were more fragmented and affected only certain areas of the curriculum. The teachers were not so strongly committed to the structure of the curriculum. In the district where the language arts consultant was supported by the assistant superintendent of curriculum, the changes in language arts K-12 curriculum were well-sequenced, and there was a much more delineated process for developing language arts curriculum. But there seemed to be no totally structured program for curriculum development.

In the third district in which the assistant superintendent of curriculum, aided by a K-12 curriculum coordinator, was directly in charge of the curriculum process, curriculum decisions began with well defined programs, and the development of curriculum documents reflected the goals of the programs. The changes in this district were strong enough to shift from site-based management to centralized curriculum with a fully structured curriculum process for grades K-12 in all subject areas.

Even in the two districts with strong community input, the position and curriculum knowledge of the central office

administrator directing curriculum development seemed to have an effect. For, in the district in which the superintendent and assistant superintendent were very active, they still placed much of the responsibility under the 7-12 subject area coordinators. There was a strong emphasis on curriculum in each subject area, but the curriculum process did not develop such sequential programs, and the procedure was not nearly so structured. In the other district, strongly influenced by a curriculum council, the superintendent and his cabinet helped structure a curriculum process for all subject areas which was to follow a specific plan for development and implementation of curriculum. He charged the K-12 subject area curriculum coordinator, a very influential position in the district, with the curriculum process.

Centralization. Since the new education reforms began, centralization or state control has become a growing phenomenon as an increasing number of more specific state mandates impact the local districts. Recent studies, however, recommend a move toward decentralization in school districts and a return to district or even site-based control of curriculum (Finn, 1984; Goodlad, 1984; Lieberman & Miller, 1984; Prash, 1984; Boyer, 1985). In this multi-case study, there was a strong move toward centralization of curriculum decisions and curriculum change. Moreover, many of the districts had moved toward consistency district-wide even before the recent spate of national and state reforms. In the sense that local efforts toward curriculum consistency predated such pressures brought by reforms,

centralization might be viewed as an idea in harmony with the times.

For example, one district had moved from site-based management and the many innovative courses of the sixties to a centralized skills-based program with criterion referenced testing with both district and state tests. The assistant superintendent of curriculum explained that this move was made because of the findings of national polls, a survey of public opinion and low student scores. He added that the decentralized programs simply had not been working, so with the support of the superintendent and the school board he began changes. He said he realized that the literature said that change came from bottom to top, but he found that such does not really occur. Rather he suggested that change must come from the top to the bottom beginning with the school board and going down through the ranks. He added that without the school board's support, a project was doomed from its inception.

More centralized curriculum was evident in three other school districts in the study. Two districts had curriculum strongly controlled by central office input. The third district was becoming more centralized as they began to develop all K-12 curriculum with a compendium of skills rather than the isolated course curriculum of the past. Such K-12 documents necessitated more central office input. Each of these three districts also emphasized district-wide testing and state testing and minimum skills programs.

The only district to escape this strong move toward centralization was in a state where there were no state guidelines and no state tests. The central office was instrumental, however, in organizing the teachers to prepare course guidelines with district outcome statements. The district also had certain course requirements, but each building was allowed a much more flexible approach in offering the course to the students. The teachers also were allowed much more flexibility in sequencing their materials.

This move toward centralization seems to be closely tied to state requirements and school reforms (Boyer, 1985), and some research suggests that such state control and centralization is a necessary trend for effective education (Murphy, Mesa, & Hallinger, 1984). Other studies have noted the effects of state reform on school curriculum and find it to be a major influence in school change (Murphy, Mesa, & Hallinger, 1984). Examining the effects of state reforms and testing in one state, Evans (1985) noted changes in curriculum according to state mandates even when these changes were not formally documented in curriculum documents. In the present study of five school districts, the influence of educational reform was obvious as a major change agent in those two states with powerful state agencies.

Teachers as Writers. One fact that both central office and building administrators agreed upon in all five districts was that teachers should take a central part in curriculum

development. Groups of teachers were involved in the curriculum process in all five districts. Even the selection criteria for the teachers was often the same. In describing the criteria, respondents enumerated such qualities as "flexible," "innovative," "creative," and "enthusiastic." Another criterion most often mentioned was knowledge of subject matter. More than one respondent stated that the best teachers do not always make the best curriculum writers. One respondent explained that being able to teach writing and being able to write curriculum were two very different talents. Another stated that curriculum writers must be able to write and sequence curriculum material in a meaningful way.

In most of the districts in the study, these teacher/writers also functioned as "good will ambassadors" for the completed documents as they took the documents back to other teachers for input and as they presented an inservice for the teachers to introduce them to the guides and to teach them how to use them. In one district a high school director of curriculum implied this ambassadorship as he explained that in selecting the teachers for curriculum writing, he tried to select teachers who had the respect of other teachers. He explained that everyone could not have input into the document and that the curriculum users would accept curriculum developed by respected teachers.

Another basis for selection appeared throughout the study. Many respondents noted that teachers were selected who either knew or could be "taught" how to develop curriculum according to

district guidelines or philosophy. This "socializing" process was mentioned in several districts. For example, in one district a teacher stated that the writers did not have complete freedom in curriculum decisions because the coordinator chose those she could "trust to make the right decisions." In another district the language arts consultant admitted that the district "screens" the writers very carefully. She added that after the writers were selected she worked with the teachers to teach them "patterns to be used."

This guidance in the writing process also was mentioned in other districts. In another school district, the coordinator stated that she gave the writers such strong guidance in writing curriculum that it was almost "fill in the blanks." In a fourth district, both the supervisor and the teachers mentioned a pilot process for writing curriculum. Writers were selected who could state objectives "consistently." The supervisor added that they wanted writers who were "flexible...willing to change, to accept new ideas" because the district wanted to make significant curriculum changes. In each site the curriculum writers received strong leadership in the format and the content of the curriculum documents.

Such guidance results in formal curriculum documents that meet the needs of the district. These district needs are established in the preplanning and planning steps of the curriculum process and translated to the teachers who reflect the needs in the content and the structure of the curriculum guides.

So even though the teachers have input in scope and sequence which gives them a strong sense of ownership in the documents, they are strongly guided by district guidelines and policies to produce, according to district demands, an appropriate curriculum document.

Negotiations. One fact that all respondents agreed upon in all five districts was that teachers should take a central part in curriculum decisions. One fact that all teacher-writers agreed upon was that "negotiations" was a central part of the decision-making process. A major portion of the decision-making process that all writers described was a negotiation system that they all used to select and place materials. Writers used different terms to describe this process. Some called it "brainstorming;" others used the term "hash sessions." But all agreed that often they had to "negotiate" about certain works to cover and the placement of materials at various grade levels as well as the amount of time to be spent on each work.

These negotiations were made for a variety of reasons. Most writers were concerned about overlapping of materials, so they had to negotiate where these materials would actually be taught. Teachers also mentioned selection of materials that they were "committed to" in "light of what was good for the district." So many teachers had to give up "pet projects" in order to meet state guidelines or to provide the best materials for student needs. They also described a desire to meet the needs of teachers throughout the district not just the needs of the

teachers on the writing committee as a strong factor in negotiations. The teachers also negotiated materials according to textbook offerings. Several respondents mentioned the need to teach the materials covered in the textbook.

The major concern and the direction for the negotiations in each district seemed to be, as one respondent stated, to insure the district was "moving in the direction of quality across the board." The writers seemed to define "quality" as a guide that would be "practical" in providing teachers a plan to follow in order to teach students the content that the district deemed appropriate.

Conclusion

Studies indicate (e. g., Patterson, 1984) an increased interest at the local level in creating curriculum documents. This interest arises from new pressures at both the national and state level for new emphasis on student achievement and delivery of quality education across the board. In many states local districts have created documents with district scope and sequence and objectives. Now, with new directives coming from the state, they seek to incorporate state objectives and content for state-wide proficiency tests into this curriculum. Even in those districts where there were no state guidelines, an emphasis on basic skills and a well-sequenced, well-documented curriculum prevails.

In the effort to produce such curriculum, the curriculum ecology or the district environment provides an impetus for

change that the district's prime mover translates into policy. This desire to produce a stronger more articulated curriculum often results in a more centralized curriculum process and a concerted effort to train teachers to implement the curriculum as designed. After the curriculum is in place, each district has developed revision processes to monitor and to maintain the curriculum in order to control its quality.

These major themes reflect the curriculum process in each district in this study as district personnel go through preplanning, planning, writing, implementaion, and revision of the district curriculum document. This task demands the interaction of many participants thoughout the district as the curriculum committees move through the complex processes of decision-making in curriculum planning and writing.

APPENDIX A

Coding Categories

Procedures

Preplanning -- references to activities predating the actual writing process

Grouping -- references to groups of writers by grade level, etc.

Revision -- references to an actual revision, planned revision, or perceived need for revision of the present document.

Staff development -- references to training of teachers to write or to use the document.

Negotiation system -- references to exchanges of ideas and/or compromises in decision-making.

Teacher input -- references to input by teachers other than the writing committee.

Other input -- references to any input not included in other categories.

Time -- references to time and its effects on curriculum planning and writing.

Participants

Selection and criteria -- references to criteria and/or methods for selecting curriculum participants.

Administrative personnel -- references to central office personnel as actors in the curriculum process.

Building administrators -- references to the role of the building administrators.

Teachers as writers -- references to teachers' role in the curriculum process and the teacher/writers' perceptions of the curriculum process and the curriculum document.

Teachers as users -- references to the characteristics or needs of teachers who use the documents and the teacher/users' perceptions of the curriculum document.

Other -- reference to curriculum participants not included in other categories.

Flow of information -- the exchange of information at the building and/or district level.

Decisions

Research -- references to a needs assessment or some other research.

Goals and/or objectives -- references to program, unit, or daily goals and objectives as a part of decision-making.

Student needs -- references to the needs and abilities of students.

Content -- references to the addition or subtraction of subject material.

Strategies -- references to activities or and teaching techniques.

Overlapping and placement -- references to repetition of or material or grade level placement of material.

Responsibility -- the teachers' perception of the importance of their role in decision-making.

Compromise -- references to negotiations in the decision-making process.

Characteristics of the Document

Format -- references to the actual layout of the document.

Contents -- references to the items contained in the document.

Scope and sequence -- references to the arrangement and placement of concepts, skills, and materials.

Flexibility -- references to changes, options, and opportunities to depart from the document.
Strategies and activities -- references to teaching strategies and activities suggested by the document.

Perceptions of Document

Organization -- references to the advantages or disadvantages of the arrangement and coverage of the document.

Purpose -- references to the stated and implied reasons or need for the document.

Appropriateness and use -- references to actual classroom use of the document.

Problem areas -- references to problems caused by the curriculum development process, or the resulting document and suggestions for improvement.

Influences

Teaching repertoire -- references to teaching experience as a factor in curriculum development.

State and district guidelines -- references to state or district documents, tests and other guidelines as a factor in curriculum development.

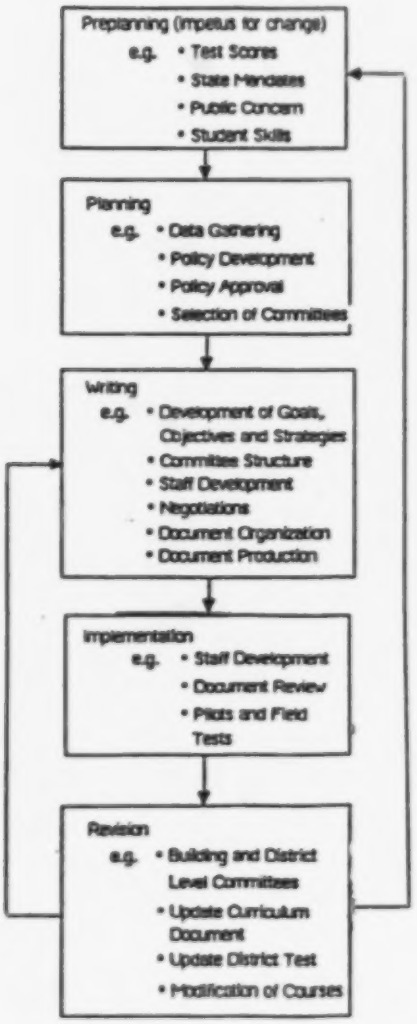
Student needs -- references to students needs as a factor in curriculum decisions.

Teacher needs -- references to teacher needs as a factor in curriculum decisions.

Time and money contraints -- references to limitations of time or budget as factors in curriculum decisions.

Resources -- references to media and other materials factors affecting decisions.

Appendix B



Common Curriculum Model

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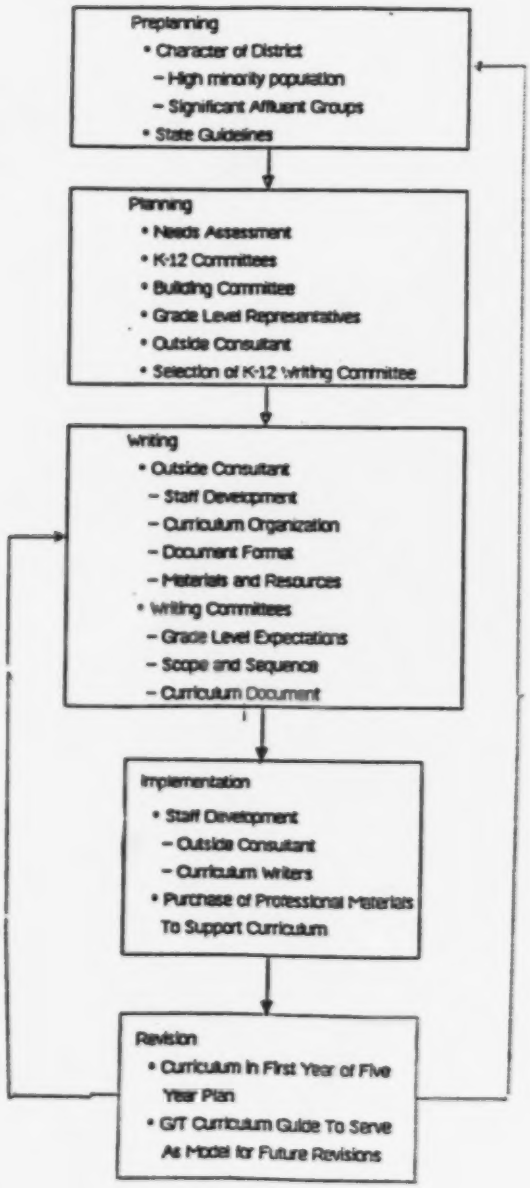
Appendix C



Consultant Experience Curriculum Model - Bayside

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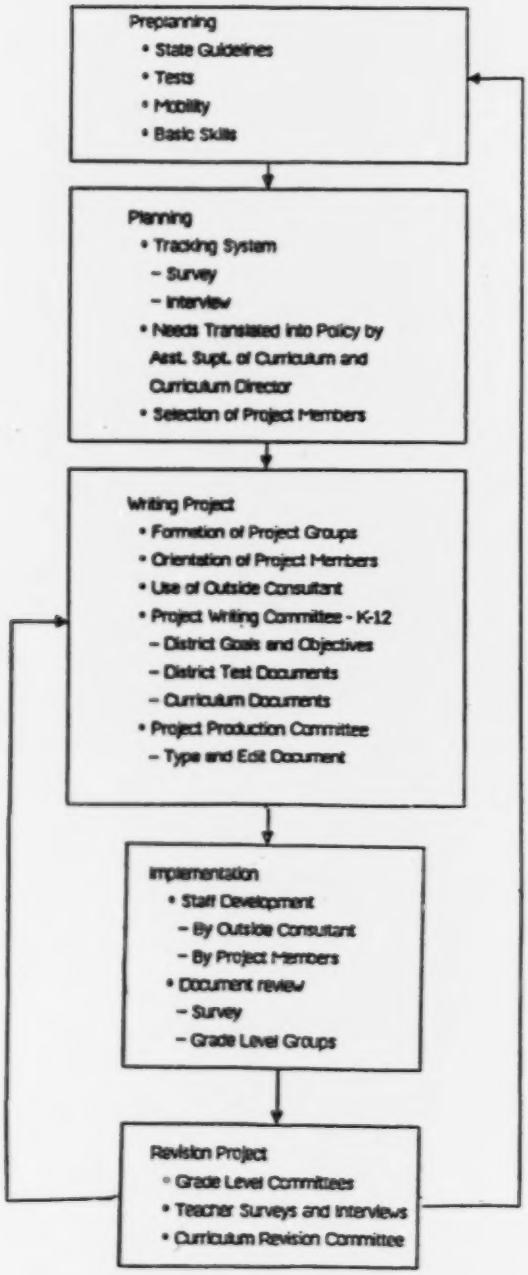
Appendix D



Curriculum Project Model - Central

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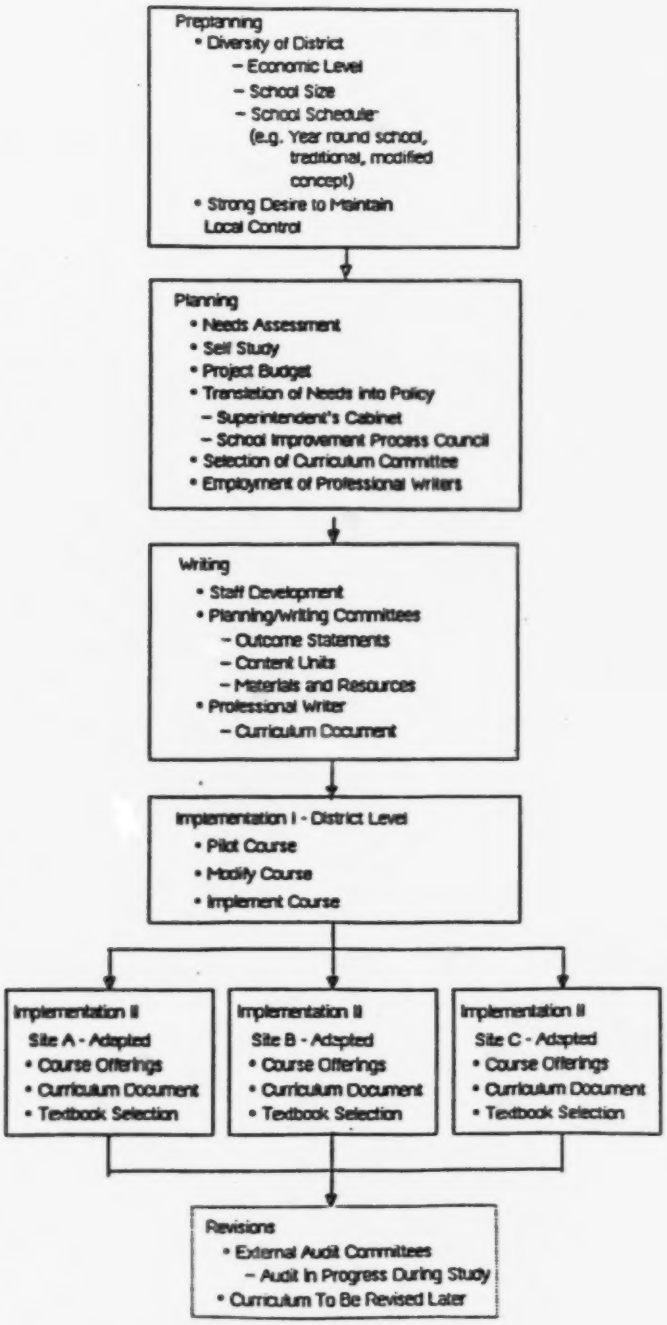
Appendix E



Research Based Curriculum Model - Mountain County

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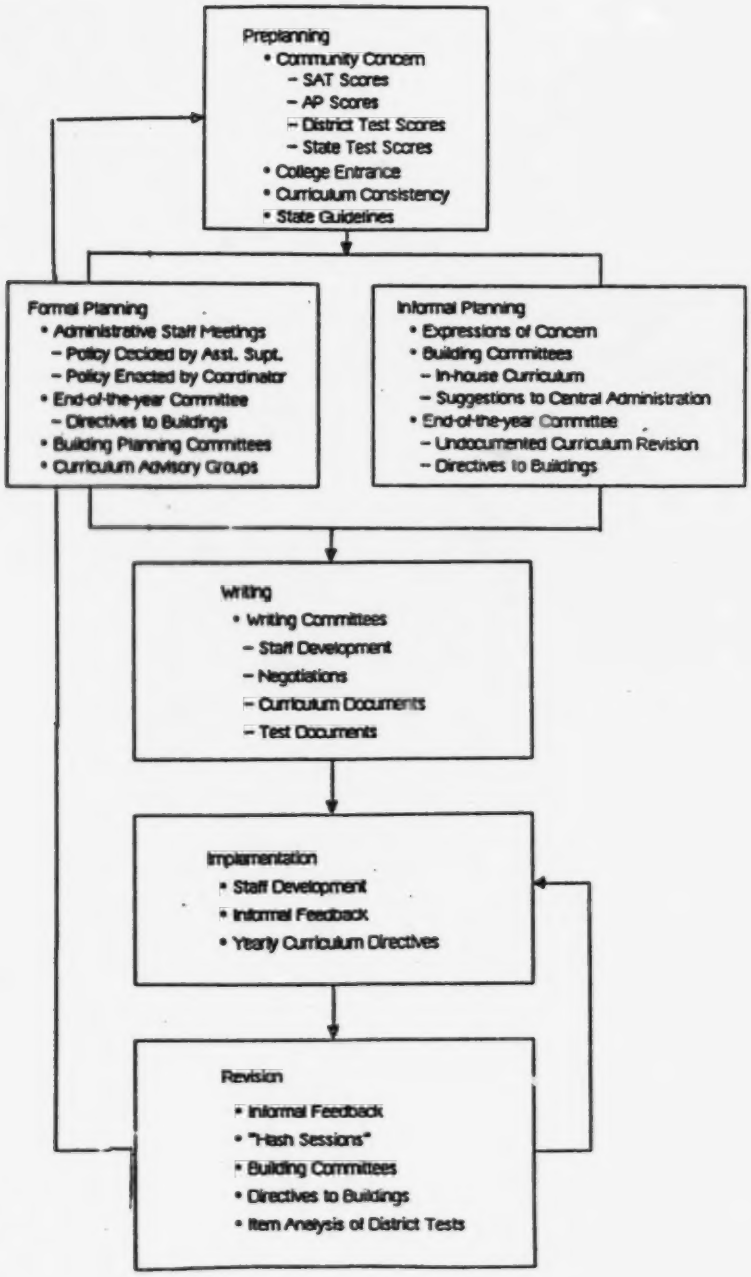
Appendix F



Formal/Informal Curriculum Model - North Plains

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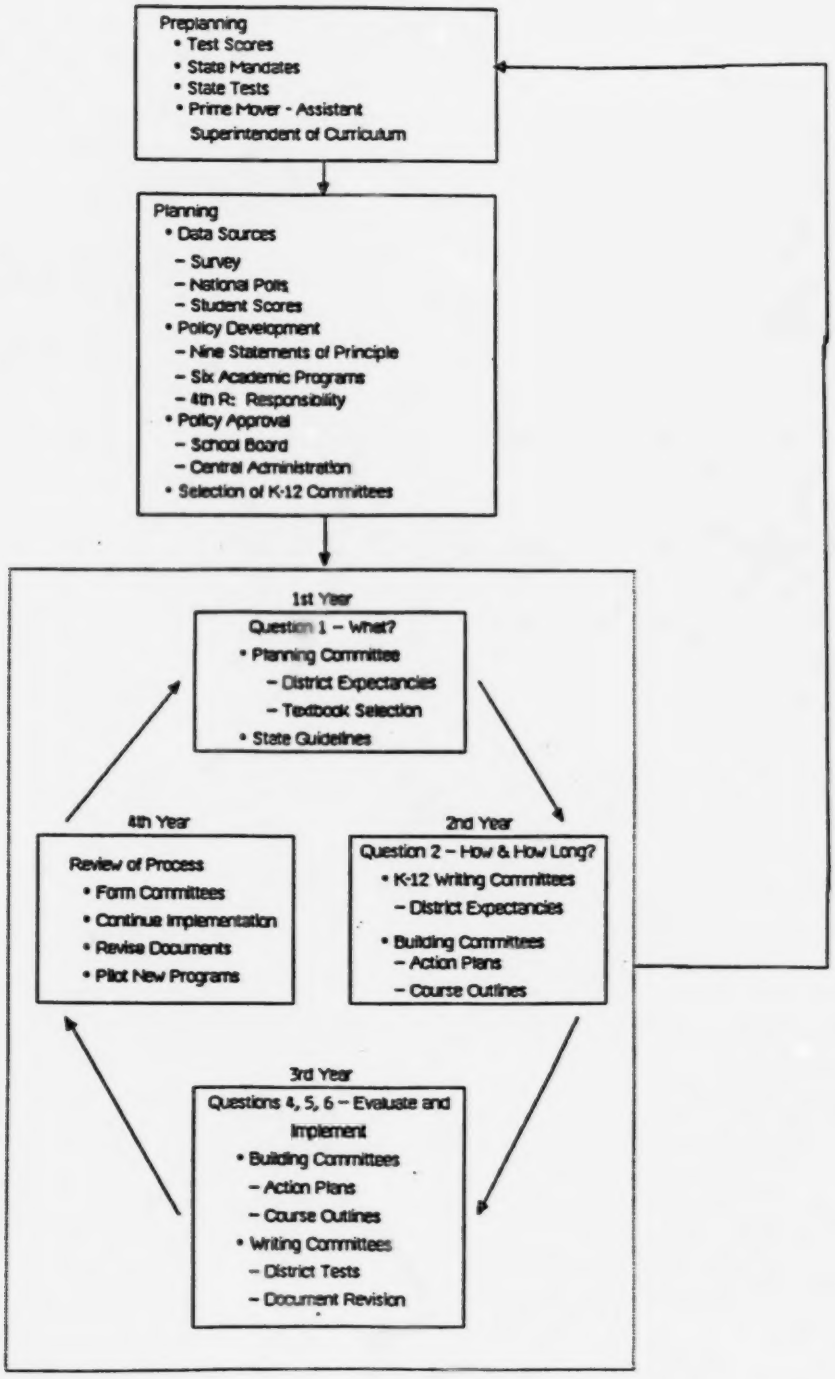
Appendix G



Continuous Cycle Curriculum Model - Valley

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